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ABSTRACT

Four approaches to second language classroom teaching methods (audiolingual, cognitive code, communicative, and pragmaticist) are compared on their ability to promote oral communication in English as a second language. Six categories of analysis are used: classroom communicative activities, communicative goals reflecting the teacher's perceptions of the relative importance and/or role of oral communication, communicative results, student motivation to participate in language activities, student attitudes toward oral communication activities, and classroom environment. It is concluded that social interfacing and the consequences of communication are major catalysts in the development of communicative competence because they relate so closely to the central issue of communication for a purpose. Two types of basic communicative activities (artistic dictation and community surveys) are outlined and recommended for applying the principles of social interfacing and consequences in the classroom, and consequential testing activities for native and peer evaluation are suggested. Sample questionnaires are appended. (MSE)

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Pragmatic Catalysts for Communicative Competence: Social Interfacing and Consequences

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Pragmatic Catalysts for Communicative Competence:

Social Interfacing and Consequences

Outline

I. Developing the Concepts of Social Interfacing and Consequences
   - A. Learning from Audiolingualism
   - B. Learning from Communicative Methods
   - C. Learning from Language Disorders
   - D. Learning from Classroom Experience
   - E. Learning from Second Language Acquisition Theory

II. Defining Social Interfacing and Consequences
   - A. Social Interfacing
   - B. Consequences

III. Comparing Methods to Illustrate Social Interfacing and Consequences
   - A. Communicative Activities: Audiolingualism and Cognitive Code
   - B. Communicative Activities: Communicative Methods and Pragmaticism
   - C. Communicative Goals
   - D. Communicative Results
   - E. Student Motivation and Student Attitude
   - F. Classroom Environments

IV. Applying Social Interfacing and Consequences
   - A. Basic Communicative Activities: Artistic Dictation
     1. Artistic Dictation Procedures
     2. Artistic Dictation: Commercially-produced Cartoons
     3. Artistic Dictation: Geometrical Designs

B. Basic Communicative Activities: Community Surveys

1. Community Surveys: Cola Taste Test

2. Community Surveys: Retirement Questionnaires

C. Consequential Testing Activities

1. Consequential Testing Activities: Native Evaluations

2. Consequential Testing Activities: Peer Evaluations

V. Capitalizing on Communicative Purpose

Pragmatic Catalysts for Communicative Competence:

Social Interfacing and Consequences*

Developing the Concepts of Social Interfacing and Consequences

In her article "Tradition and Revolution in ESL Teaching," Ann Raimes (1983) notes that many of us in the field of ESL currently find ourselves in a state of turmoil over the discipline's philisophical orientations to language instruction and that many of us believe we have been converted to the new and dynamic communicative school of thought and/or paradigm; however, as she writes:

> We are still very far from a 'common body of beliefs and assumptions' that makes up a new paradigm. We are, rather, still very firmly in the middle of a paridigm shift. We have a very long way to go before we will be able to establish a canon of beliefs about language and language learning that forms a common core of our discipline and turns its back on the positivist tradition. p. 549

And, indeed, the current state of affairs in second language teaching represents to me what I refer to as an educational paradox: our scholars are diligently espousing a revolution (towards communicative competence) while the majority of that revolution's foot soldiers (the classroom teachers) are comfortably dug into their audiolingual foxholes.

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*This paper is an expanded version of a presentation given at the TEXTESOL Region V Fall Conference held in Arlington, Texas during October, 1985.

Learning from Audiolingualism

Although many language teachers were wrestling with the new ideas of communicative competence at the time I first began to study a foreign language, my own language-learning experience never indicated that my instructors had heard there was a foreign-language-teaching revolution afoot. After studying Spanish for three years in high school--audiolingually, I came to the conclusion that languages intrigued me, but I must not have an aptitude for their acquisition. Then, in undergraduate school, I decided to participate in an educational exchange program to Japan at the end of my freshman year; consequently, I began to study Japanese--audiolingually. From my preparation program (which included both Japanese language and culture), I surmized that different cultures intrigued me, but, once again, I seemed to have no aptitude for languages. After beginning my stay in Japan and settling into everyday life in a rural rice-growing community north of Tokyo, something miraculous began to happen--I actually started to learn a foreign language! Suddenly I had to use a language in a natural, sink-or-swim situation, and I found myself swimming. My aptitude had changed! Soon after returning from Japan, I began to take classes in my TEFL major and discovered that the only way my aptitude had affected my previous foreign-language failures was through my inability to learn audiolingually. When I began to read the criticisms of audiolingualism, the studies demonstrating its overall inability to produce "users" of languages, and about alternate methods, I became angry. That anger propelled me into the communicative competence camp.

Learning from Communicative Methods

The notions of communicative competence and communication-oriented

classrooms gave me hope as a language teacher, but they did not give me that philisophical comfort that comes with coherence. Consequently, I was mesmorized when I read Stephen D. Krashen's (1982) Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition for the first time towards the end of my graduate studies. So many of his hypotheses applied to me and my own language-learning experiences that I was immediately converted. As I entered the real working world of ESL, I went armed with Krashen's text and the knowledge that--in the trenches--audiolingualism reigns supreme. As I zealously went about preaching and practicing communication, I actually proselytized many, including teachers and students--especially the students. However, even though my classrooms were filled with comprehensible input and student-talk, I could only help my students reach a certain communicative plateau, and there they would sit--fossilizing before my eyes! I could not figure out how to help them kick their new-found communicative confidence into that high gear that produces communicative competence. Something was not clicking.

Learning from Language Disorders

Then, I heard about pragmaticism. Ironically, I did not first learn about pragmaticism from a text, but from my wife--a speech and language pathologist. Pragmaticism as an approach to viewing and a method of dealing with language disorders has been evolving in the field of communication disorders for some time. As with us, language pathologists had been laboring under the influence of behavioralism and the production metaphor in their attempts to treat language-disordered individuals; their behavioral approach is referred to as psycholinguism. In order to understand the departure of pragmaticism from the mainstream, it would be helpful to know that pragmaticism in language pathology

defines a language disorder in relation to a synergistic system, one in which

> the dynamics of the individual's physiology is represented through certain cognitive, social, or language types of behaviors. Thus, any breakdown in the system represents a deviation in the functioning of that system. [An individual] with a breakdown in the system is [an individual] with a language disorder. (Arwood, 1983, p. 13)

From a psycholinguistic approach, a therapist would attempt to remediate the disorder by focusing on one of its primary surface manifestations--the atypical syntax.[1] In pragmaticism, the therapist attacks the client's disordered language system, not the products of that system. As for applications to ESL, it is the purpose, intent, and execution of pragmatic language therapy on the level of therapist-to-client that best illustrates its relevance to the teaching and acquisition of a second language.

> If the language intervention procedures do not consider the opportunity for the [individual] to purposefully affect a hearer, then the signs of language skills are meaningless. Meaningless language does not help the [individual] develop communicative skills. Therefore, all language intervention for [individuals] with semantic, pragmatic disorders should be natural. Only in the natural context can sign usage have purpose, intent, and social, communicative effects. (Arwood, 1984, pp. 28-29)

In its attempt to make the therapy session "natural," pragmaticism has established two major environmental prerequisites: (1) the session must include and promote socialization and (2) the communication occurring in

the session must have consequences. As a result, pragmatic language therapy is adminstered in groups of disordered clients (rather than one-on-one), for meaningful communication occurs when one person attempts to purposefully affect another person in some way. The key to the previous statement is "purposefully affect;" if a situation exists in which the language user may produce some desired change or modification in his environment or the elements in that environment, then the language use has consequences. Consequences and socialization are the catalysts that stimulate communicative competence.

Learning from Classroom Experience

Although my classrooms were encouraging student communication, it was communication without legitimate social interaction or consequences. Basically, I had been satisfied if I could motivate a student to reflect on an issue, dig down into his reservoir of personal feelings, and, then, attempt to express those feelings in an unstructured, unrehearsed, non-threatening situation. Unfortunately, I felt that I was improving the content and quality of my students' surface-level responses, but I was still not making contact with their communicative souls. However, I had stumbled upon several techniques that had produced some results that I felt were bringing me closer to accessing their systems, so I encouraged my fellow instructors to experiment by asking them to (1) develop mutual peer communicative dependence, (2) increase opportunities for peer evaluations, (3) introduce a system of rewards for language use beyond the call of duty, and (4) stimulate "conflict" (i.e., a dynamic interaction) among the students. At that time, I had no theoretical understanding of why these "techniques" had produced results; however, after talking to my wife at length, I realized these techniques were poking around in

pragmaticism. Now I know that the first two techniques were drawing my students towards socialization and the latter three were attempts to inject pragmatic consequences. Finally, I committed myself to reading one of my wife's textbooks by Ellen Lucas Arwood (1984)--Pragmaticism: Treatment for Language Disorders.[2] As I read that monograph, the applications of Arwood's theories to second language instruction gripped me, and I resolved to adapt her ideas about socialization and consequences to my needs for reaching my student's internal communicative systems.

Learning from Second Language Acquisition Theory

In order to incorporate socialization and consequences into what I already held to be true about language, I had to expand on the communicative and pragmatic ideas already suggested and/or accepted in second-language-acquisition circles. Clearly, Krashen's (1982) hypotheses about acquisition apply to any attempts to develop and understand communicative competence. Furthermore, Krashen and Terrell's (1983) The Natural Approach put Krashen's theories into actual classroom practice in such a way that a more natural context is fostered. However, Oller (1983) actually seeks to describe the functioning of the acquirer's system when he outlines his notions about pragmatic mapping. He defines pragmatic mapping as it relates to Krashen's input/intake distinction.[3] Oller (1983) writes:

> This question, how input becomes intake, can be construed as a special case of the general process of pragmatic mapping. [Pragmatic mapping] may be defined as the systematic linking of discourse structures [utterances or written forms of language] to the events of ordinary experience.... It is by this mapping pro-

cess that the event sequences of experience are set in meaningful correspondence with discourse structures. (pp. 5-6)

Therefore, according to Oller, meaningful communication occurs when the language signs and/or discourse structures used by one discourse participant obtain meaning through the matching of those discourse structures with the facts of experience held by another discourse participant. Now we know how discourse attains meaning--through pragmatic mapping.[4] In addition, we know what comprehended meaning is--intake. What is de-emphasized in these discussions is the fact that pragmatic linkage and intake materialize only when the participants in a discourse situation mutually agree to align their facts of experience so that comprehension has the opportunity to occur. Furthermore, we have not addressed the issue of why some second-language learners knowingly use their facts of experience to develop meaning and others do not.[5]

Defining Social Interfacing and Consequences

The keys to mutual alignment and the utilization of facts of experience are social interfacing and pragmatic consequences. If the comprehension and communication of meaning are dependent upon facts of experience, then successful communication is less dependent upon the decoding of discourse signals sent by one discourse participant to another than it is on the accessing and alignment of the discourse participants' facts of experience. For, without access to and linkage of facts of experience, communication will not occur, whether a discourse signal is sent or not.[6]

Social Interfacing

I refer to the act of actually linking the discourse participants'

experiential banks (the storehouses for the facts of experience) as social interfacing. Interfacing, as used in computerese, refers to a networking function in which two or more data banks are connected in such a way as to make the information they contain accessible to programmers who have need of the data and who could not access it otherwise. In a pragmatic context, interfacing describes the conjoining of two (or more) language systems in such a way that the participants' experiential banks are accessible in a discourse situation. It is at the point that the experiential banks are mutually aligned and accessible that communication has the potential to occur. Social is used to acknowledge the fact that discourse situations develop as a result of man's need to establish contact with others in order to grow emotionally, cognitively, and linguistically.[7] As Arwood (1983) writes:

> The social need to acquire semantic information continues until there is no more life. From the first day of life to death, a human being demonstrates the social need to interact with his or her environment.... The ability to survive optimally is quite dependent on the opportunity to interact with others in the environment. (p. 57)

A skeptic of social interfacing could ask: "If socialization is such a natural phenomenon for man, why should we worry about 'linkage' and such matters in the language classroom?" My response is equally forthright: "Who said our students view the foreign language classroom as natural?!" The fact of the matter is that students of foreign languages could hardly consider substitution drills, vanishing dialogues, and--the most obviously unnatural element of all--electronic language laboratories--as natural. Indeed, our students have become so steeped

in audiolingualism that they have come to accept artificiality as the medium of foreign language instruction. More importantly, in my opinion, they have evolved the notion that the foreign language classroom is an unnatural environment and, therefore, natural rules do not apply. After all, they assume they will learn if they can only digest enough discrete chunks of the language and memorize enough dialogues so that language use is automatic, right? Wrong. Unfortunately for advocates of artificiality, natural rules do apply. Before I actively sought to promote social interfacing, I used to hate to see a class period end because, as soon as I dismissed class, my students would start buzzing in mutilated English with each other, yet, during class, they would hardly look at each other, much less perform semi-naturally during a dialogue. The reason for this seemingly inconsistent behavior is simple: those students were using English--after class--for purely social reasons; whereas--during class--the students were not only subordinate to the language, but they were being manipulated by it as well. During class, the language had no practical consequences and served no consequential purpose. In order, therefore, to capitalize on socialization, we, as teachers, are responsible for making the classroom more natural--as advocated by Krashen and Terrell (1983)--and socially consequential. For, social interfacing will only occur in response to a discourse participant's desire to obtain pragmatic consequences in a naturally communicative situation.

Consequences

When the classroom environment or communicative context offers the discourse participants an opportunity to or requires them to willfully and purposefully affect one another, that environment or context is

said to be consequential. Consequences exist when attempts are made or considered by discourse participants to affect change in, gain access to, or permit access to the attitudes, beliefs, and/or behaviors housed in one (or more) of the participants' experiential banks. For example, if I were to invest my savings in securities, and I had to choose between blue-chip stocks (which pay low but very reliable dividends) and speculative stocks (which could potentially pay high dividends but are considered to be very risky), I would have to assess the possible consequences of my investment before deciding. My decision is consequential because I could lose all my savings if I were to invest exclusively in speculative stock. As a result, those consequences cause me to pause, reflect on my facts of experience about speculative and blue-chip investments, weigh the difference between the potential returns and risks, and make a decision based on my needs and experience. In other words, I have to process and act upon the relevant data using a complex analytical system because of the consequences associated with my decision. If there were no consequences, it would not matter which kind of stock I chose. The impact of consequences are equally discernable in a communicative situation. For the sake of example, assume that I am a student of intermediate Chinese and my instructor assigns me to a group composed of three other students, none of whom speak my native language. The instructor then directs us to pool our ideas about nuclear disarmament in preparation for an out-of-class composition assignment, for which I will receive a grade based exclusively on the grammar, content, and organization of the composition, which I must then write and submit as my own, independent work. After the teacher moves the class into its separate groups and instructs us to begin, I have basic-

ally two choices: (1) to participate meaningfully in the group discussion or (2) not to participate meaningfully. At this point I must weigh my options:

1) If I actively engage in the discussion, I could obtain some ideas I might not otherwise have thought of and which I could include in my composition, thus possibly improving the quality of my composition and, subsequently, raising my grade; on the other hand, if I were to actively participate in the discussion, I would have to struggle with the language in order to understand and be understood by the other students since they do not speak my native language.

2) If I do not actively participate in the discussion, I will not profit from the ideas of the other students; however, if my grade--on a composition written exclusively by me--is determined only by my grammar, content, and organization--not the inclusion of ideas generated by the group--why should I be concerned about the group's ideas if I have confidence in my own?

If these are my options, clearly it makes little difference as to whether I contribute my facts of experience to the discussion or consider the experiences of the other participants because my grade is unaffected by my participation or the lack thereof. Therefore, the division of the class into groups has no communicative consequences, so I have no need to socially interact with the other students. It is the need or desire for consequences that causes a person to attempt to access another's experiential banks or to permit his own to be accessed in a communicative situation. If the discourse situation does not, as

Arwood (1984) has already been quoted as saying, "consider the opportunity for the [individual] to purposefully affect a hearer, then the signs of language skills are meaningless. Meaningless language does not help the [individual] develop communicative skills (pp. 28-29)." Moreover, if an instructional or linguistic situation is inconsequential, social interfacing, acquisition, and system modification will not occur.

Comparing Methods to Illustrate Social Interfacing and Consequences

In order to better support and more graphically illustrate the notions of social interfacing and pragmatic consequences, I have prepared a chart--"Characteristics of Select Methods Promoting Oral Communication" (Figure 1, p. 13)--that compares audiolingualism, the cognitive-code method, and communicative methods in general[8] to ESL pragmaticism. To faciliate this comparison, I have identified six categories[9] for analysis:

1) Communicative Activities: the typical classroom techniques considered to promote oral-communication capability and which characterize each method
2) Communicative Goals: the purpose for which the techniques are used; the goals of a given class tend to reflect the instructor's perceptions of the relative importance and/or role of oral communication in second language acquisition
3) Communicative Results: the kind of oral communication that occurs as a consequence of the communicative goals and activities
4) Student Motivation: the notations that most often describe

CHARACTERISTICS OF SELECT METHODS PROMOTING ORAL COMMUNICATION

	Audiolingualism	Cognitive Code	Communicative Methods	Pragmaticism
Communicative Activities	Dialogues --Repetition --Memorization Complete the sentence	Guided Utterances Semi-structured Dialogues	Discussion about a topic Role play Experiential learning	Experiential learning Role play Discussion about a topic
Communicative Goals	To use appropriate phrases and structures in a given context	To provide an opportunity when student can apply structures in a realistic, unstructured context	To provide opportunities for student to formulate thoughts into words spontaneously in an unstructured context	To provide legitimate reasons for using language and consequential opportunities for communicative exchange
Communicative Results	Use of relevant nouns, adjectives, and verbs in a communicative context	One-at-a-time oral performances; limited student-student interaction; much student-teacher interaction	Much talking and expression of ideas and opinions; ability to express ideas in an unstructured, realistic situation enhanced	Much talking and extensive listening; much oral interaction between participants; student-student dependence; ability to express ideas in a real situation enhanced
Student Motivation	Low to Nonexistant	Fair to Good	Good to Excellent	Locked-In
Student Attitude	Poor to Disinterested	Interested in individual performance	Interested in individual performance, but excited about using oral English	Interest in other's performance; often engrossed; determined
Classroom Environment	Boring; unproductive	Often slow; anxiety-producing	Productive; Confidence-building	Productive; Adventuresome; Confidence-building; Interactive

Figure 1

the student's motivation to participate in the language activities that the methods use to develop and/or stimulate oral communication proficiency

5) Student Motivation: the descriptions of the student's interest in the oral communication activites employed by each method; the attitudes of the students often reflect the students' perception of what the important aspects of oral communication are, as suggested by the communicative activities and goals

6) Classroom Environment: the learning atmosphere typically developed or in existence in the classroom; the atmosphere is usually the result of a combination of the communicative goals, student motivation, and student attitude

In beginning this method comparison, it would be beneficial to describe the communicative activities in depth in order to facilitate the discussion in the other categories later.

Communicative Activities: Audiolingualism and Cognitive Code

I will begin with audiolingualism and the cognitive-code method as both of these methods are grammar-based and, consequently, similar. Most foreign language instructors have been exposed to, if not used, the audiolingual techniques for developing oral communication: grammatically sequential and programed dialogues, dialogue memorization and repetition, and various forms of structural drills. Wilga Rivers (1968) describes the audiolingual approach to oral English, a language skill emphasized throughout a student's audiolingual instruction but especially during the beginning stages, thusly:

At the first level of instruction, sometimes longer, learning is

> based on dialogues containing commonly used, everyday expressions and basic [grammatical] structures of high frequency. The vocabulary content is kept to a useful minimum so that the student may concentrate on establishing a solid control of structure. The dialogues are learned by a process of mimicry-memorization. Students learn the dialogue sentences by heart, one by one.... The dialogue sentences being by now very familiar, pattern drills based on the structures in the dialogues usually become the main activity. (pp. 41-42)

Memorization techniques, such as vanishing dialogues, and myriads of drills are well-known, central fixtures in developing oral communication in audiolingualism. Basically, these techniques are intended to make language use automatic, resulting from habit formation. While the cognitive-code method is grammar-based also, it is less rigid and less tightly controlled. Stern (1983) describes it by writing:

> The cognitive approach does not reject, disguise, or de-emphasize the conscious teaching of grammar or language rules.... Instead of expecting automatic command of the language and habit-formation from intensive drill, it seeks the intellectual understanding by the learner of the language as a system; and practice of meaningful material is regarded as being of greater merit than the drive towards automatic control. (p. 470)

Cognitive-code techniques include guided utterances (student-generated sentences based on a prescribed grammatical structure) and semi-structured dialogues (dialogues, with a prescribed setting and targeted grammatical structure, in which the student generates utterances using the targeted grammatical structure). Mary Finocchiaro (1969) suggests that

> There are many ways of introducing the teaching of the sounds, structure, and vocabulary, as well as the normal forms, of conversation of English.... Whatever the procedural approach--conversation, story, etc.--the teaching of any language item should proceed in five sequential steps:
>
> 1. The pupils should be led to <u>understand</u> the material.... This may be termed the step of "cognition."
> 2. They should be led to <u>repeat</u> the material after the teacher models it as often as necessary....
> 3. They should be led to <u>practice</u> the material in as many ways as possible....
> 4. They should be helped to <u>choose</u> the correct structure, word, or expression from several alternatives, in statements, responses, or questions....
> 5. They should be encouraged to <u>use</u> the new material in any communicative situation in which they can express ideas, wants, or desires without conscious concern for inflections, word order, stress, or any other feature of the English language system. This step is often labeled "production." (pp. 98-99)

While the cognitive-code method offers the student more oral flexibility than does audiolingualism, both methods stress (1) the conscious control of grammar and (2) the role of the instructor as dispenser of the linguistic knowledge leading to language acquisition, as evidenced by Finocchiaro's use of the verb <u>lead</u> in one through three above.

<u>Communicative Activities: Communicative Methods and Pragmaticism</u>

As with the audiolingual and cognitive-code methods, the commun-

icative methods and pragmaticism have many similarities, as they are both communication-oriented. Likewise, neither of these two methodologies have yet fully developed a metaphorical base that is widely accepted among second-language acquisition scholars. However, as Nattinger (1984) writes, there are some coherent, identifiable characteristics[10] of communicative methods:

> 1) Communicative competence is the goal at each level of instruction;
>
> 2) Interaction between language users and their environment is a primary objective of all exercises; and
>
> 3) The processes involved in using language, that is, the strategies for making sense of something and for negotiating meaning, are the center of attention. (p. 391)

From this point--the identification of the basic elements--the techniques of communicative methods begin to diverge. There are some student textbooks that have a communicative approach; Kettering's (1975) text, while constrained somewhat by functional-notionalism, is one of the earlier student textbooks that I have seen that emphasizes communicative competence. In it, the students are encouraged to produce unstructured, non-grammar-based dialogues, to enter the community in order to collect specific data using oral English, and to work together in order to solve a problem and/or share information. The weakness with using this text or any other in a communicative, oral-language class is that it restricts the flow of comprehensible input by predetermining topics. In discussing the techniques of the Natural Approach, Terrell (1983) outlines three stages of language acquisition and accompanying techniques for each stage;[11] in addition, he writes:

> Both comprehension and production experiences are provided by a series of affective acquisition activites, the main purpose of which is to promote acquisition by (1) providing comprehensible input, (2) lowering anxieties, and (3) creating opportunities to convey messages. (p. 282)

In virtually all communicative methods, however, discussions about topics of interest to the students (i.e., Sino-Soviet relations, Watergate, marriage and courtship customs, etc.), unstructured role plays (short dialogues or descriptive situations without written dialogues and no explicity-identified or targeted grammatical structures), and experiential learning (including group projects, community excursions, etc.) are staple techniques. Pragmaticism also utilizes many of the same activities found in communicative methods, but, rather than only emphasizing input, intake, and output for acquisition purposes, it consciously affects those activities so that they have meaningful and readily-discernable consequences. In addition, it is not the expression of internal ideas and feelings that is emphasized for communication's sake; instead, the expression of internal ideas and feelings is emphasized for the sake of purposefully affecting another person. In communicative approaches, such as the Natural Approach, communication exists primarily for the purpose of language acquisition--in other words, for the purpose of communication or language itself; in pragmaticism, communication exists primarily for the purpose of social interaction--in other words, for the purpose of linking the discourse participants' facts of experience so that they can accomplish their goal of sharing their ideas and feelings, not their language. As a result, pragmaticism takes a different approach to the same activites used by communicative methods: dis-

cussion about a topic, role play, and experiential learning. As indicated by the chart on page 13, the emphasis placed on the activities is reversed or, at least, altered. While communicative methods stress the importance of comprehensible input through much conversation about interesting topics, pragmaticism places primary importance on activities that could result in comprehensible input in various quantities but which optimize student-student interdependence and/or student-native interdependence.[12] This promotion of socialization is accomplished through a variety of experiential learning techniques (some of which will be discussed in more detail later in this paper) such as interviews, surveys, debates, etc. Indeed, both communicative methods and pragmaticism use many of the same techniques and could possibly be based on the same metaphor (should it ever be satisfactorily delineated), but pragmaticism incorporates pragmatic consequences for social interfacing into each activity while communicative methods do not.

Communicative Goals

When considering the communicative goals for each of these four methods, the surface similarities (techniques) between methods begin to be replaced by significant differences. For example, audiolingualism seeks to determine and prescribe the oral communication and/or utterances used in specific contexts (so that utterances will be automatic and error-free when that context appears in reality) while communicative methods attempt to hone a student's overall communication skills so that he will be able to apply those skills in any context. In addition, the cognitive-code method departs from audiolingualism by prescribing a structure to practice but not pre-determining the content of the utterance itself. Similar to the communicative methods, pragmati-

cism approaches oral communication in a grammatically unstructured manner; however, unlike the communicative methods, which emphasize communicative opportunity, pragmaticism focuses on communicative motive. While communicative methods orchestrate opportunities for rich comprehensible input, pragmaticism evaluates a given input opportunity to discover (1) if the student has a legitimate reason for meaningfully or actively participating in it, before engaging the student, and (2) if there is some direct social involvement or social consequences attached to that opportunity. If an opportunity lacks the essential ingredients of social need and consequences, an ESL pragmatist will either inject them in order to stimulate meaningful communication or label that opportunity as "non-opportunistic" and subsequently reject it.

Communicative Results

Undoubtedly, the most interesting of the three communicative categories is communicative results. An instructor who has taught with these methods will readily recognize these results as being characteristic. Students of audiolingualism are often able to regurgitate common greetings, partings, and other phrases appropriately; however, given a context involving extended self-expression and/or abstractions, they often resort to patch-work English, i.e., sentences containing noun, adjective, and verb forms without function words and/or, as in holophrastic speech in children, one-word utterances in which a single noun is intended to communicate a wealth of information. With the cognitive-code method, the quality of performance improves since, in class, the students are given opportunities to generate original discourse. However, a commonly-observed phenomenon evident in cognitive-code classes is that the oral communication occurring is usually between the teacher

and a given student. Each student waits his turn to try out his sentence(s) on the teacher, who then accepts, rejects, or modifies it (them). When a student's turn is over and the teacher has moved on to another student, the first student often lapses into his own thoughts rather than tuning into the discourse between the teacher and each of the other students. With communicative methods, students freely express their feelings and desires, and there is often a great deal of hubbub in the classroom. Upon occassion, students will even disagree, attempt to rationally defend their positions, and appeal to the others for help. During group work, oral exchanges often begin slowly, especially with heterogeneous groups, or, early on, get derailed or stalled on the first major point--usually because each student wants the other students to accept his idea, yet no one cares to negotiate a settlement either. With pragmaticism, the students cannot stall, derail, or refuse to compromise because their grades for the assignment are based on the group's position or decision, not the individual's. Furthermore, in a pragmatic classroom, the student noise level can fluctuate between very noisy (when several students are attempting to sway the others to their positions and, subsequently, have to vie for the attention of the majority) and relatively quiet (when the majority has given the floor to one speaker and is listening intently to his ideas). However, one of the major qualities of pragmaticism is that the consequential nature of the communication activities results in active listening on the part of the discourse participants who are not speaking. Since the structure of the activities and, ultimately, the students' scores for the activities require student interdependence, listening is considered by the students to be a critical function,

resulting not only in much comprehensible input, but a great deal of intake as well. Intake--the desired communicative results--will occur more frequently when a student has a legitimate--social--reason to comprehend the input, the kind of reason that compells him to apply his communicative skills.

Student Motivation and Student Attitude

Student motivation and student attitude are the two affective categories included in this method comparison. Although teachers of audiolingualism cringe, it is generally agreed that student motivation, in an audiolingual context, is low, if not virtually non-existent. After all, why should a student be motivated to learn when, as stated by Tumposky (1984), "Poor performance on the student's part is the result of poor or inefficient management on the teacher's part (p. 305)." Likewise, when the students are considered and perceive themselves to be passive recipients of the teacher's knowledge and "products to be molded by the supervisors and their blueprints" (Herron, 1982, p. 237), why shouldn't they be disinterested and their attitudes be poor? As for the the cognitive-code method, student motivation is better because they see themselves as more capable and responsible as language users and learners. Moreover, the interest level is increased because they are interested in their own performance and the teacher's reaction to their application of the structure-of-the-day. Unfortunately, as Carroll (1965) reports concerning an experiment involving audiolingualism and the cognitive-code learning theory, "The two methods are not as sharply differentiated as they should be (p. 279)." As if in proof of Carroll's conclusion, interest and motivation usually drop to the levels exhibited in audiolingualism whenever the student's turn to produce

his utterance(s) or do his part is over in the cognitive-code classroom. In contrast, a student's motivation and interest are usually high in a classroom using communicative methods, primarily due to the fact that the discussion topics are interesting and atypical of those most students have been exposed to in a more traditional behavioral setting. While the student is most interested in his own performance, he is often excited about using English in a communicative fashion. The most interesting aspect of communicative methods is the range possible in student motivation. Depending on the day, the topic, the student's preoccupations, and the teacher's animation, student motivation can range from relatively good to excellent. I believe this range exists because of the lack of pragmatic consequences and social interfacing. In pragmaticism, student motivation is locked in by the very nature of the activity. Each activity has a social purpose and contains pragmatic consequences, so the student has a high motivation to actively participate every day or else run the risk of being unable to complete an assignment. Since pragmatic activities require interdependence, a student is very interested, often engrossed, in what the other students have to say or do. Because the activities have social consequences, the students frequently exhibit great determination in their quest to complete a project or be understood by a native English-speaker assisting in an activity. While motivation and interest are not the exclusive affective variables involved in language learning, they are representative and essential ones in the process of language acquisition and should be considered in any methodological comparison.

Classroom Environments

The last category for discussion on the chart is the classroom

environment. Why is it that we, as foreign language teachers, consistently hear, "If you really want to learn a foreign language, you have to go to a country that uses that language"? Why do people make such a statement, and is it true? I believe the answers lie in the foreign language classroom. People make such statements when the classroom environment is painfully boring, and those statements are true when a person can study a foreign language five hours a week for nine months and not be able to "speak a word" of it. Such is the environment of the audiolingual classroom--boring and unproductive. Regrettably, most language learners sit in audiolingual classrooms, never have a meaningful opportunity to use the language as a social tool, and assume audiolingualism is the state-of-the-art in language teaching. Likewise, since the cognitive-code method focuses on grammatical form and analysis, the classroom environment is much the same: slow-moving and anxiety-producing. (The cognitive-code method produces anxiety because the student's one chance to demonstrate his oral proficiency to the teacher is when he is given his turn to speak in class. If he fails to adequately produce during his turn, the teacher's and students' evaluations of his ability will be marred.) As for the classrooms using communicative methods and pragmaticism, they serve to constructively build the student's confidence in his abilities to communicate in such a way that he can understand others and be understood. In addition, these classrooms are rather productive, in two ways: (1) productive in that there is much talk and discussion and (2) productive in that the carryover from the language classroom environment to the real-world environment is usually very good. The danger lies in that communicative plateau to which I referred at the beginning of this paper. Since communi-

cative methods are affectively-sensitive and error is permitted, students will lapse into apathy concerning the improvement of their linguistic systems and tend to level-off in their acquisition progress. However, with pragmaticism, students are not conditioned to believe that the essence of communication is making yourself understood and understanding the messages sent by someone else. Rather, students are shown that communication is a dynamic, evolving, unpredictable interaction between discourse participants and that the goal of communication is to purposefully affect another person. In this sense, communication is not just linguistic, it is experiential--dependent upon the discourse participants more than on the language code. As a result, a pragmatic oral communication classroom has an aura of adventure about it because students know that they could potentially interface with a wide variety of people, resulting in the consistent modification of their linguistic systems.

From this methodological analysis, it is evident that these methods yield similiar and dissimilar results. Both of the communication-based methods enhance the exchange of meaning; the grammar-based methods both enhance form. Concerning specific differences--audiolingualism promotes habit formation; the cognitive-code method promotes mental analysis; communicative methods promote communicative performance; and pragmaticism promotes socio-communicative consequences--the social consequences of communication.

Applying Social Interfacing and Consequences

In order to demonstrate how social interfacing and pragmatic consequences are applicable to the second language classroom, I would like

to discuss several pragmatic activities I have used with my students. I have divided these activities into two parts: (1) basic communicative activities, which is composed of (a) artistic dictation activities and (b) community surveys, and (2) consequential testing activities, which includes (a) native-speaker evaluations and (b) peer evaluations. These activities are far from being all-inclusive. Rather, my objective is to illustrate how a teacher can incorporate social interfacing and pragmatic consequences into activities that will result in intake and acquisition, not to outline the parameters of pragmatic curriculum design.

Basic Communicative Activities: Artistic Dictation

Artistic Dictation Procedures

It is appropriate that I begin this section on pragmatic activities with an examination of two artistic dictation exercises since it was artistic dictation that first permitted me to experiment with social interfacing and consequences. Artistic dictation is an activity that involves two (or more) discourse participants and a picture (usually a cartoon or illustration, rather than a photograph). One of the participants (the describer) looks at the picture and, using spoken English only, describes it in detail to the second participant (the artist) who then draws an approximation of the picture based on the verbal description and directives given him by the describer. The artist is not permitted to see the picture at any time during the activity, and the describer is prohibited from gesturing to the artist in order to maximize verbalizations and minimize pantomime. Nevertheless, both participants are allowed to speak as long as they speak the target language. The picture is secured inside a manila file folder, which acts as a shield.

Unfamiliar vocabulary words may been written inside the folder in order to better focus the describer's energies and facilitate the vocabulary carryover from the activity. In the past, my students have preferred to draw on large pieces of brown butcher paper taped to the blackboard; then, they can stand and throw their whole bodies into the activity. We use many different colored, water-base magic markers, so the describer can also include the colors found in the picture. For the sake of consequences and fun, I usually divide the class into teams. Upon occassion, each team draws the same picture; sometimes, they each have a different one. The two artistic dication activities I am about to describe were both used with beginning-level ESL students.

Artistic Dictation: Commercially-produced Cartoons

The first time I wanted to use artistic dictation was as part of a unit on Halloween, so I purchased several commercially-produced, cardboard Halloween cartoons, the kind that are usually hung in windows during the Halloween season. At the beginning of the unit, we discussed the history of Halloween, the traditions of Halloween night, and the creatures that come out on Halloween. Of course, these ideas were all foreign to my students as they had never been exposed to Halloween before. When we actually began the exercise, none of my students had previously seen the cartoons they were to describe and draw. With this activity, social interfacing occurs almost immediately after the describer opens the file folder to look at the cartoon. His first words inevitably are "What is this?! How can I talk about this? We don't have these things in my country!" The artist, who is typically more optimistic than the describer (probably because he is not looking at the cartoon and seeing the scope of the task) usually says, "Ah, come

on! We can do it! Tell me what to draw first." At this point, I usually step in, point at some basic aspect of the cartoon, and tell the describer to start with that element. Then the fun and the interfacing begin! In order for the cartoon to be drawn, the describer and the artist have to boil the picture down to the conceptual level at which their facts of experience can be aligned. Figure 2 on page 29 is a finished product actually drawn by two of my students; neither of them had ever seen a cartoon picture of a flying witch before; yet, as you can see, the quality of the drawing is remarkable. They did not accomplish the drawing of the witch by the describer saying, "Draw a picture of a witch flying past the moon with a frog holding on to her and an owl perched on the front end of her broom." Rather, the describer began by saying, "Draw a broom." To which directive the artist replied, "A what? What is a broom?" In order to help the artist link his facts of experience with the unfamiliar English word broom, the describer had to begin describing the household functions of the broom, necessitating a wide variety of vocabulary that a teacher would not have ordinarily introduced in conjunction with a discussion of Halloween. When the artist finally understood broom, he could not figure out why the describer wanted him to draw it horizontally on his paper. This active interchange continued throughout the drawing of the flying witch, and the participants used many non-targeted grammatical units, such as comparatives like bigger, longer, rounder, not for the sake of language practice, but for the purpose of pragmatic mapping and experiential alignment. (I repeated this exercise with these same students using the same cartoons, but the artists were Americans.[13] That activity will long be remembered by those beginning-level students because they were able to

Artistic Dictation: Halloween Cartoon

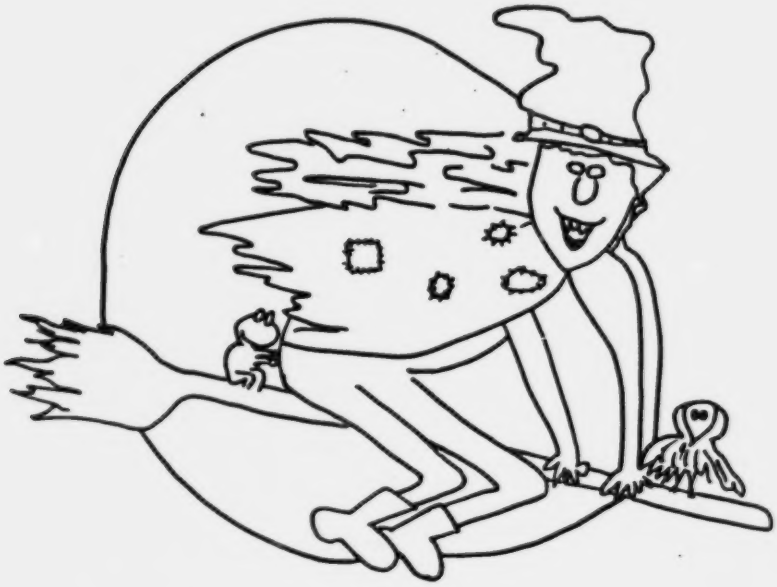

Figure 2

Artistic Dictation: Geometrical Design

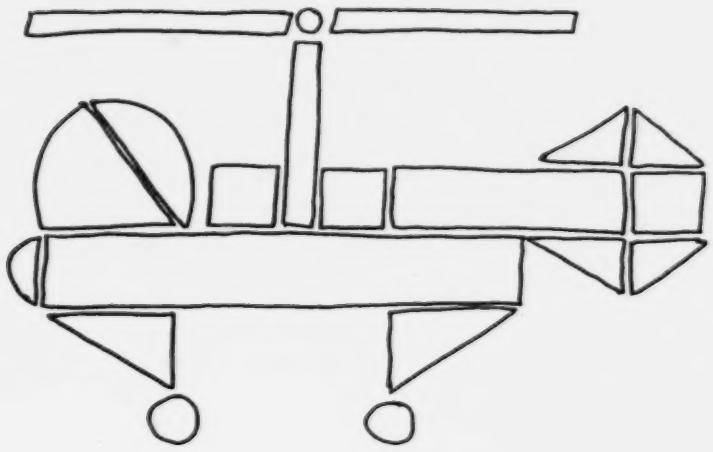

Figure 3

see, in graphic form, through the completed drawings, that they were able to manipulate the English language for communicative purposes rather than be manipulated by it.) In this activity, the requirement for successful social interfacing is met by designating two functions--describing and drawing--and preventing the participants from having the ability to execute both of those functions independently. Clearly, if the participants are to have a drawn approximation of their assigned cartoon, it is imperative that they work together. Furthermore, if they are to have an accurate approximation, they will have to maneuver their communicative systems and capabilities to the point that what the describer says to the artist has meaning to the artist and what the artist draws has meaning (or is acceptable) to the describer. This process of pragmatic mapping is accomplished through social interfacing and, more specifically, the proper alignment of the describer and artist's facts of experience. The consequences that necessitate the need for the interfacing are twofold: (1) the finished picture will be viewed by persons other than the discourse participants--in this case the other class members--and (2) the differences and similarities between the cartoon and the students' approximation will be evident and a reflection of the communication that transpired between the participants. This activity would serve as an excellent experiment for an instructor wishing to explore the effectiveness of social interfacing, consequences, and pragmaticism.

Artistic Dictation: Geometrical Designs

While teaching in a summer program offering intensive English for foreign adolescents, I wanted to use an artistic dictation activity with my beginning students. However, they were initially threatened by

the conceptual complexity of a commercially-produced cartoon, so we started out using geometrical designs, like the one pictured in Figure 3 on page 29, and eventually worked up to more complex cartoons. Before exposing my students to a design like Figure 3, I introduced them to several basic geometrical concepts: circle, line, square, rectangle, triangle, horizontal, vertical, and diagonal. We then began the activity by my giving each of the describers the same geometrical design secured inside file folders. Since the design is composed exclusively of shapes and lines, the describers tended to seek absolute replication from the artists, and the artists would settle for no less than precise guidance from the describers. As with the Halloween activity, the students used comparatives extensively; interestingly, however, prepositions and prepositional-phrase constructions emerged as the dominate grammatical forms. An example of a typical dialogue used in the drawing of the design shown in Figure 3 is

D: Draw a big triangle under the long rectangle.

A: On the right or the left?

D: At the left end first.

A: Here?

D: No! Under! Under! Not beside... Good... No, not like that!... [The artist had drawn the triangle with the base of the triangle parallel to the base of the rectangle as if the triangle were pointing at the rectangle.] ... Put the bottom of the triangle on the bottom of the rectangle. Only one side of the triangle looks like a diagonal line... Make it longer!

A: That's not right!

D: Yes, it is!

A: That's not right! The sides are wrong! This vertical line is too short!

D: The sides are different. The vertical line is shorter... Shorter!!

This process continues until each team is finished or, more typically, when the drawing time runs out. During that time, however, the team participants have been totally engrossed in their drawing, except for an occassional glance at another team's, and their mutual interaction. The consequences that stimulate the social interfacing in this exercise, as well as the process of alignment, are the same as those described in the Halloween activity. One noteworthy difference, however, is the reduction in the potential range of concepts that the discourse participants must deal with, thus enabling them to experience social interfacing and to develop communicative confidence before increasing the conceptual complexity to a level requiring more creative techniques for achieving pragmatic mapping.

Basic Communicative Activities: Community Surveys

Another one of my favorite pragmatic techniques is the development of community surveys. While artistic dictation more graphically demonstrates social interfacing, community surveys more vividly illustrate the role of consequences. These questionnaires can be an end-unto-themselves (a survey in which the use of the survey itself is the reason for its development) or an outgrowth of a lesson (a survey in which the questionnaire is designed to supplement or further stimulate the class discussion or analysis of a given topic).

Community Surveys: Cola Taste Test

The first survey I want to discuss is one that was intended to be

an end-unto-itself. My low-intermediate oral communication class and I were once quarrelling over the tastes of American sodas, and they claimed that all sodas were alike, unless they were diet. I, of course, had to disagree with their observations and point out that they were hardly soda connoisseurs. In the ensuing debate, I suggested that most Americans claim to have the ability to detect a difference in taste between sodas and, as a result, tend to prefer one over the others. To settle the dispute, we decided to administer an hour-long soda taste-test, involving Pepsi, New Coke, and Coke Classic. We planned the showdown for high noon outside the University's student center. In preparation, the students discussed the kind of questions to ask in order to find out if Americans buy sodas because of taste or prejudice, formulated the procedural details for administering the test, and developed a questionnaire to serve as their diving rod (see Appendix A); meanwhile, I went to the supermarket and purchased fifty dollars worth of soda. Needless to say, the students were not only eager for battle (hoping to prove me wrong), but they were filled with excitement about coming in contact with so many Americans. Finally, on the appointed day for Cola War I, eleven ESL students served three hundred and seventy-five cups of cola to one hundred and twenty-five volunteer taste-testers--all in one hour. The role of social interfacing in this activity is obvious--the students had to interact with the American tasters in order to explain the taste-test, answer questions, give directions, administer the questionnaire, record answers, administer the cola samplings, and report results. The role of consequences is equally obvious: (1) the students had to communicate with native speakers of English most of whom they had never met and who were unaccustomed to

speaking with foreigners; (2) the students were going to have the opportunity to be center-stage and seen by not only their American peers, but other foreign peers as well; and (3) the students were doing something that had never been done before at our univeristy and which would receive attention in the school newspaper. Rather than run from the experience, those students, most of whom were oriental, revelled in it and learned much about their own communicative systems and capabilities.

Community Surveys: Retirement Questionnaires

The second survey to be discussed is actually a pair of questionnaires (see Appendix B) that my low-intermediate oral communication class developed as part of a unit on aging in the United States. After reading passages and viewing a video about aging, the class visited a local nursing facility for the elderly and disabled. This institution fascinated my students who then wanted to know how a family could place a relative in such a facility, why some older people would prefer a nursing home over living with family members, and what American families do to prepare for elderly years. As the class began to prepare possible questions for inclusion in a survey that would answer their questions, they decided they wanted to be able to compare the attitudes, expectations, and preparations of younger adults to the attitudes, earlier presumptions, and quality of life of older adults. In order to limit the number of questions addressed to any given individual while still obtaining a data base for comparison, the students decided to prepare two questionnaires: one for individuals between the ages of thirty and fifty and one for people sixty-five years and older. Each student was assigned a quota of interviewees in each age group. They then proceeded to interview a total of one hundred and one adult Amer-

icans at locations such as nearby shopping centers, a mall, churches, and local neighborhoods. Once again, when the survey was completed, the students not only felt that they had personally learned first-hand about the attitudes and lives of American people, they had also felt that the experience had been a revealing one concerning their own communicative systems. The roles of social interfacing and consequences are much the same as those previously listed in the taste-test summary; however, with this survey, there were three additional consequential elements: (1) time was at a premium since the interviewees were being interrupted, so the students had to rely more on their acquired language than on their learned language; (2) the involvement of elderly adults caused the students to tax their communicative skills in order to make themselves understood and to understand the often-times weak voices of the interviewees, especially those over seventy-five years-old; and (3) the students knew they were representing the University and felt that they were representing their countries. Before the survey had begun, the students had been somewhat anxious about going out into the real world and interviewing real, busy people (in contrast to fellow students on familiar ground); after having done it once, however, they were eager to launch out into reality again. They had discovered the magic of pragmaticism--languge use based on interaction with real people is more stimulating than contrived interchanges with a seemingly less-than-real language teacher.

Consequential Testing Activites

The last part of the activities section deals with pragmatic testing activities, techniques that capitalize on the power of social interfacing and consequences. I have included these techniques under the

activities heading because, while they are tests, they are projects that necessitate socialization and student action, as opposed to simply sitting at a desk and answering questions. It is not my intention to leave the impression that regular pencil-and-paper tests are inappropriate in a pragmatic context; on the contrary, frequent testing is an important consequence-generating element in ESL pragmaticism; at the same time, however, I believe testing that requires socialization will not only yield the quantitative data we need for our grade books, but it will also have a more lasting impact on the student's acquisition of the target language than does a pencil-and-paper test, no matter how integreated or communicatively-oriented it may be. The representatives of activity-based testing techniques included in this discussion are divided into two categories: native evaluations and peer evaluations. Native evaluation is an approach to foreign language testing in which the evaluation and grade-assignment are performed and determined by native speakers of the target language, rather than the instructor. Peer evaluation is a testing technique in which the final grade for a person fulfilling an assignment is determined by the instructor's score and that individual's scoring of his fellow classmates' work relative to the instructor's score for their work.

Consequential Testing Activities: Native Evaluations

Native evaluations offer strong consequences to the student and a lot of work to the teacher; however, the potential benefits (for both the student and the teacher) make this form of testing well worth the effort. First, the instructor must devise an activity or project that allows each member of the class to be active and interactive participants while requiring each to rely on, exercise, and demonstrate

his communicative abilities. At the same time, the activity must be interesting to and capable of evaluation by a panel of judges, who have been removed from the development of the activity until the final, evaluative stage. Second, the activity must be clearly outlined so that the students know its purpose, format, and manner of evaluation and so that the evaluators are certain of what the students have been instructed. Last, the evaluators should be given a detailed evaluation profile for grading the students' contributions to the activity as well as an explanation of how to use that profile. In the following paragraph, I will discuss an activity that I have used involving native evaluators and point out the roles of social interfacing and consequences.

As I began to experiment further with my ideas on pragmaticism, I became obsessed with the idea of a pragmatic activity that had dramatic consequences associated with it and that could serve as a vivid inservice demonstration for people interested in understanding what we were doing in the ESL program's new communication-based curriculum. The solution became apparent to me towards the end of a semester in which I had been teaching business English[14] to my advanced-level ESL students. I decided to stage a debate on the then-current attempts by hostile investors to seize control of CBS (Columbia Broadcasting System); this topic would allow the students to integrate and apply what they had learned about business over the course of the semester. In addition, I decided to designate the two advanced classes as opposing teams and invite the students' friends, advisers, department heads, and college deans to serve as spectators. By staging an event, I could intensify the consequences for the students, gain exposure for our international-student program, and demonstrate the communicative advantages of our

new curriculum to the people most closely affiliated with the foreign students on our campus. After selecting a topic, the next step was to inform the students about the mechanics of the debate. Figure 4 on page 39 is a copy of the data sheet distributed to each student outlining the purpose, format, and evaluative procedures for the debate. As you can see from the "Format" section in Figure 4, each team was allotted forty minutes, and each team member was assigned a minimum of three minutes. Since each team had eleven members, seven minutes from the total allotment were available for distribution among and by the team members. (Once the time was distributed, it could only be used by the person to whom it was assigned. Although a person did not have to fill his total time allotment, his grade would be based exlusively on the time he used, and any left-over time could not be reassigned to another team member.[15]) After each team was given an identity (such as Representatives of CBS), each student was assigned a role (such as CBS anchorman Dan Rather) and a function (to call attention to the integrity of and non-biased reporting of the CBS Evening News, for example). It then became the student's responsibility to research the past position and personal history, if any, of his character and fairly represent his views and area of expertise in the debate. Under the "Evaluation" heading in Figure 4, you can see that each participant was affected not only by the scores given him, but by the scores given the team as well, for students on the team chosen as most pursuasive by the judges would be awarded additional points to be added on to their individual scores. The judges (composed of two ESL teachers, two English faculty members, one management science professor, and a dean) used the scoring profiles shown on page 41 for determining student scores.

DEBATE DATA

Advanced English as a Second Language

Purpose: The primary purpose of this debate is to provide you with an opportunity to integrate the knowledge you have acquired about the different aspects of business with the communicative proficiency you have acquired in English during the course of this term. A secondary purpose for this activity is to expose you to the necessity for your obtaining and maintaining proficiency in the pursasive aspect of English communication if you are to reach and succeed in the management levels of a multinational and/or international business.

Format: The advanced ESL students will be divided into two teams: Team A and Team B.

Each team is allotted 40 minutes in which to present its position on the issue to be debated. This 40 minutes is to be divided among the team members, and the team shall determine the time allotments for each member. However, each member must be allotted at least 3 minutes in which to present his portion of his team's position.

Each team will be assigned an identity. This identity may be the role of a corporation, an organization, or a group of people tied together by some common philosophical or ideological bond.

Each team member will be assigned a role and function. This role may be a real person's name and life, a hypothetical person's name and life, a management title with no designated biography, or simply a general career designation. The assigned function is your general area of responsibilities in the development and presentation of your team's position.

Each team will be provided the opportunity

1) To introduce its position on the issue; then, after introductions,
2) To present its position on the issue, as established by the different team members, and, lastly,
3) To make closing remarks, which could include rebuttal.

Evaluation: A panel of judges will evaluate each participant's presentation and determine which team most persuasively presented its position. Each judge will be provided with a scoring profile listing specific criteria and scoring options (points-possible per area) to be used in evaluating both individual presenters and teams. A participant's individual grade will be determined by averaging the scores given to that student by each judge. Then, the members of the team chosen as most-persuasive will receive 6 additional points that will be added to their individual scores.

Figure 4

(Figure 5 is the individual performance profile, and Figure 6 is the team performance profile.) The students were also provided with copies of these profiles, so they would know how they would be given grades and the areas in which they would be graded.[16] In addition, each judge was given a copy of the data sheet illustrated in Figure 4, page 39, and a guide for using the scoring profiles (see Appendix C). On the day of the debate, the team members, judges, and spectators were given a program which listed the order of presentations and time allotted for each; the names of the team members, along with their countries, targeted degree, and role for the debate; and the names and titles of the judges. As you can observe from the description of the activity and the magnitude of the debate itself, the chances for social interfacing and consequences were manifold and practically rampant. Opportunities for social interfacing include:

1) The interaction between team members in planning, practicing, and presenting their portion of the debate;
2) The interaction between participants and university resource personnel in the researching of the debate issue and the various histories and functions tied to the debate roles;
3) The interaction between opposing team members as they discussed the project and attempted to discover the debate strategy of the other person's team;
4) The interaction between the participants and their associates (the spectators) before, during, and after the debate; and
5) The interaction between the participants and the judges before, during, and after the debate.

Consequential elements for this activity include:

ADVANCED ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

DEBATE EVALUATION

INDIVIDUAL PRESENTATION EVALUATION

Presenter's Name: _____

Presenter's Role: _____

Time Allotment: _____ Evaluator: _____

Content					
Coverage of area of responsiblity	10	8	6	4	
Specific Details	10	8	6	4	
Organization	8	6	4	2	
Relevance of Information		6	4	2	
Apparent Research		6	4	2	
Style					
Delivery	8	6	4	2	
Relation of Information to Team Position		6	4	2	
Response to Opposing Position		6	4	2	
Communication					
Comprehensibility	10	8	6	4	
Grammar	8	6	4	2	
Suprasegmentation		6	4	2	
Nonverbal Behavior		6	4	2	
Global					
Overall Effect	10	8	6	4	

Total ____

Figure 5

ADVANCED ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

DEBATE EVALUATION

TEAM EVALUATION

Team: _____

Team Identity: _____

Evaluator: _____

Clearly Defined Position	5	4	3	2	1	
Position Clarification by Individual Presentations	5	4	3	2	1	
Defense of Position	5	4	3	2	1	
Weakening Opposition's Position	5	4	3	2	1	
Time Management	5	4	3	2	1	
Specific Details	5	4	3	2	1	
Use of Visual Aids	5	4	3	2	1	
Overall Effect	5	4	3	2	1	

Total ____

Comments:

Figure 6

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

1) The students would be receiving a major course grade for their participation in the activity;
2) That grade would be based exclusively on the students' performances during short oral presentations;
3) Those presentations would take place in a public setting with a large number of spectators, some of whom may not be familiar with each presenter or his manner of speaking English;
4) Those spectators would be composed of friends, peers, university superiors (including advisers, program heads, and deans), and a panel of judges;
5) Those judges would be responsible for assigning grades for each student's and team's presentations; furthermore, they would be impartial, so the scores would be based on performance, not personality; and, finally,
6) A student's individual performance would directly affect the evaluation of the overall team performance, thus, directly affecting the final grades of the other team members.

While this kind of activity is complicated and time-consuming, the use of native evaluators can have a profoundly positive impact on the student's target-language system, for students of a second language definately exhibit higher levels of motivation and interest whenever native speakers of the target language are involved in a language-learning activity. And, as my experience indicates, they are certainly more motivated when their scores on an assignment are to be determined by reliable, yet unfamiliar natives.

Consequential Testing Activities: Peer Evaluations

The final kind of activity to be discussed involves peer-evaluation testing techniques. The typical form of peer evaluation usually has one student giving another student a grade and/or significant advice on an assignment. However, when I use the term peer evaluation, I am referring to a different set of behaviors. In my teaching, I discovered a signficant problem with the normal approach: the peer evaluators were compromising the effectiveness of the technique by giving inappropriate grades and feedback to the evaluatees, thus hoping to avoid potential conflict or antagonism. As a result, the activity had no meaningful consequences for either of the participants. Hence, I instituted a modified approach, hereafter referred to simply as peer evaluation, rather than "modified peer evaluation." In this approach, peer evaluation basically involves a grader and a presenter (or presenters). During the course of a given assignment involving peer evaluation, a participant will serve as both a grader and a presenter. For the sake of clarification and example, suppose that there are only two students in a class. One student (S_1) initially acts as the presenter, and the other student (S_2) listens to the presentation by S_1 and assigns him a grade using a scoring profile that I have given him. At the same time, I am listening to S_1 and giving him a grade based on the profile. When S_1 is finished, S_2 gives his presentation, and S_1 assigns him a grade by using the profile. Of course, I am also evaluating S_2 with the profile. After both students are finished, we add up our scores and compare, a critical stage in the process because it may potentially alter a student's score, for a presenter's final score is based on two factors: (1) his presentation and (2) the grade he assigns the other

student when he is giving his presentation. I use the following set of ranges to alter the score I give the presenter:

1) If the grader's score equals the score I gave the presenter, the grader receives three extra points added to the score that I gave him on his presentation;
2) If the grader's score is five points above or below the score I gave the presenter, the grader receives one extra point added to his presentation score;
3) If the grader's score is six to fourteen points above or below mine, he receives no point modification in his presentation score; and
4) If the grader's score is fifteen or more points above or below the score I gave the presenter, the grader loses one point from the score I gave him on his presentation.

By following these procedures, it becomes necessary for the students to not only prepare a good presentation, but to listen attentively while the other students are giving their presentations, thus facilitating the effects of comprehensible input and intake. Moreover, when the evaluations are complete, I can give the graders' profile sheets for a specific presenter to that presenter, along with my sheet, and the presenter has several people's realistic assessments of his performance.

Peer evaluations can be applied to virtually any assignment and can be used to stimulate student-student interfacing--during the evaluation process--in an assignment that would have otherwise required independent work on the students' parts. If a project does not require much student interdependence during the preparation stages, the instructor should not rely on peer evaluation as the sole means of socializa-

tion and consequences. On the contrary, the instructor must structure the project (like the one discussed below) in such a way that the prepatory stages have opportunities for student-native interfacing and consequences; then, the evaluation process is simply an additional consequential opportunity, not the exclusive one. Once, after concluding a discussion of management functions in my advanced ESL class studying business English, I provided each of my students with a management-crisis situation (see the example in Figure 7 on page 46) in which they were to act as management consultants for several local businesses. Although the assignment required each student to work independently, the students had to interact with native English speakers in order to gather the data necessary for solving the crisis situation. For example, in the situation described in Figure 7, the student acting as the consultant had to go to the municipal airport, examine the income-producing facilities, ask the operators and/or supervisors of those facilities about the levels of consumer traffic, observe the typical behaviors of airport patrons, and talk with airline personnel about schedules, rates, and passenger loads. After assembling as much information as possible from on-site analysis and additional sources of information, such as the local newspaper in this example, the student had to prepare a five to eight-minute speech to be presented in class. When the time for the presentations arrived, each student was given a set of scoring profiles for evaluating this particular assignment (see Figure 8 on page 46). Normally, at this point in a similar assignment not using peer evaluation, however, the students acting as the audience are bored and inattentive while they listen to presenter after presenter; as a result, the class time devoted to presentations--other

Management-Crisis Data Sheet

Situation: The City of Abilene has hired you as a management consultant to analyze the profit margin of the City's Municipal Airport. The number of air travelers has increased since American Airlines took control of Chapparal Airlines, converting it into American Eagle, and American Airlines has showed a substantial increase in quarterly income from service out of the Abilene Municipal Airport. However, the City of Abilene, which owns the airport facilities and leases some of its space to American Airlines, has not realized a growth in its revenues from the increased traffic at the airport.

Directions: Prepare a 5-8 minute (maximum) speech that outlines your scheme (using the four major management functions as the basis for your plan) to increase revenues for the City of Abilene by capitalizing on the larger number of people using the airport facilities.

Figure 7

Peer Evaluation Scoring Profile

Identification of Consultee Problem	8	6	4	2	0
Identification of Reasons for Problem	8	6	4	2	0
Solutions for Consultee Problem	10	8	6	4	2
Quality of Solutions	12	10	8	6	4
Following Directions	5	4	3	2	1
Organization/Coherence	10	8	6	4	2
Avoidance of Reading	5	4	3	2	1
Delivery	8	6	4	2	0
Grammar	10	8	6	4	2
Communicative Clarity	12	10	8	6	4
Overall Effect	12	10	8	6	4

TOTAL ☐

Figure 8

than the time consumed by a student when he is the presenter himself--is wasted. In contrast, an activity that incorporates peer evaluation and ties consequences to the evaluator's performance results in productive use of presentation time. As you can see from Figure 8, the graders must be attentive to the majority of each presentation in order to score the range of catagories on the profile, from simply determining if the presenter followed the directions to rating the overall effect of the presentation itself. The major aspect of social interfacing involved in the evaluation portion of this activity is alignment between the presenter and his audience. Some of the consequences bringing about this alignment include: (1) twenty-four percent of the score the instructor assigns the presenter (in the areas of communicative clarity and overall effect) will be strongly influenced by the presenter's interaction with his audience; (2) the presenters are aware of the fact that their fellow classmates will actually be paying attention to the quality of their presentations, thus motivating them to prepare and perform better; and (3) the graders can either have additional points added to their presentation scores, if they will realistically assess the presenters' performances, or they can lose points by assigning unrealistic scores and/or neglecting to attend to the presentations. As a direct result of these considerations, the presenters usually exert more effort making themselves comprehensible--thereby facilitating the quality of input--and the graders usually listen more carefully and strive more diligently to comprehend--thus facilitating the quantity of intake.

Capitalizing on Communicative Purpose

In conclusion, there is little doubt but that social interfacing and consequences are major catalysts in the development of communicative competence, for these two variables attack the very heart of communication--purpose. For too long language teachers have attempted to pursuade their students to memorize dialogues or ramble on about a topic-of-interest with the justification that doing so would eventually result in communicative capability. Oller (1983) is actually discussing communicative purpose when he criticizes the use of unmotivated (or non-purposeful) texts and materials in a foreign-language instructional setting; he writes, "I think that unmotivated texts should be avoided. We should treat them just as we would polecats with their tails in the air.... This will help to relieve a lot of classroom boredom (p. 17)." Why are unmotivated texts (which could include dialogues, drills, reading passages, discussion topics, etc.) boring? They have no meaningful purpose! Communicative performance for the sake of linguistic manipulation or cognitive stimulation lacks communicative purpose, and communication without purpose lacks justification. Why do so many students of a foreign language, especially in linquistic environments that do not use the target language, drop out of elective foreign language classes after a relatively short period of study? They grow tired of waiting for the time to come when they can use the target language purposefully--to affect another person. Is it not true that socialization--the need to affect or be affected by another person--is the very purpose of communication? Communication, in whatever form it may assume, is by definition an activity in-

volving the transfer of meaning-carrying data from one person to another. Communication simply cannot occur or exist without at least two people being involved. If this fact is true, why then do we, as foreign language teachers, try to divorce meaningful communication from purposeful socialization? If such a segregation results in language disorders in the process of first language acquisition, I believe such a separation will produce second-language disorders as well, resulting in communicative incompetence. In attempting to address the socialization factor in communication development, many of us have introduced group work, peer tutoring, and other socially-based activities into our classes. However, we have neglected to attach meaningful consequences to those activities, so our students have been content to pay lip-service to these social interactions and, then, function independently in completing what was intended to be a group project. How can we really expect our students to develop interdependence and capitalize on the power of socialization without any legitimate consequences for developing that communicative relationship? Obviously, if research in the field of language disorders has relevance to second language acquisition, we cannot and should not expect affective socialization without a consequential purpose for the establishment of that interaction. I believe that, if we are to revitalize the classroom as a productive environment for the promotion of second language acquisition, we must not only supplant the current reign of grammatical form with a focus on communicative competence, but we must also rid ourselves of the notion that communicative constructions and verbosity for the sake of communicative performance will produce competence. Communicative competence will have the opportunity to evolve

in a communicative classroom when the communication occuring in that setting offers purposeful and consequential opportunities for legitimate socialization targeting communicative development.

About the Author

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Endnotes

1. An excellent example of a psycholinquistic syntactic-remediation program is Zwitman and Sonderman's (1979).
2. Ellen Lucas Arwood has published three texts: Arwood (1983, 1984) and Lucas (1980). In them, she has developed her own pragmaticism theory, methodology, and techniques; however, there are other pragmatists in the field of communication disorders who would and do take different approaches.
3. Input refers to verbal and nonverbal communicative data; intake is input that is comprehended and, as a consequence, is usable for communicative purposes.
4. Oller (1983) describes pragmatic mapping and then goes on to introduce three hypotheses (the textuality hypothesis, the expectancy hypothesis, and the episode hypothesis) that serve to explain why some texts of experience and discourse structures are linked more easily than others. In his conclusion, he notes how these hypotheses can best be applied to the facilitation of comprehension--

   > by captializing on the textuality of ordinary experience, respecting its logic, harnessing the cognitive momentum that this logic creates, and in general by employing good story-telling techniques in preparing, packaging, and presenting language teaching materials. (pp. 18-19)

5. Oller (1983) would probably say some learners do not or have not

used facts of experience because the language input devices (such as materials or instruction) to which they have been exposed do not conform to the tenets established in the textuality, expectancy, and episode hypotheses. I believe the reason lies more with the learner than with the input devices.

6. This basic truth explains why nonverbal channels of communication are often relied upon by discourse participants when they are unable to align their facts of experience through verbal channels. Often times, a combination of gestures, facial expressions, and other nonverbal cues can communicate a thought or need should the verbal mode break down or not function. Unfortunately, as earlier research of mine (Yeats, 1984a, 1984b) shows, nonverbal communication is also acquired from the environment and is often an unreliable means of communication when employed by discourse participants having culturally different nonverbal systems.
7. I am not suggesting that language acquisition is exclusively the result of social interaction. Such a position is espoused by the Strong Interaction Hypothesis, described in Krashen (1985), and denys the possiblity for second language acquisition through reading, watching television, and other sources of comprehensible input not directly associated with social interaction. While it is possible for second language acquisition to occur without direct socialization, I believe acquisition and communicative competence can be greatly enhanced and accelerated through social interfacing.
8. The Communicative Methods category does not include Functional-Notionalism, a method that falls, in my opinion, more readily under the Cognitive Code column.

9. These six categories should not have a tendency to discriminate against any of the four methods since the chart is specifically addressing oral communication, and, since oral communication is inherently communicative, each of the methods must and do have communicative activities, goals, and results. Furthermore, student motivation, student attitude, and classroom environment are parts of any classroom, whether it is an ESL oral communication class or a graduate business ethics class.
10. Allwright (1979) outlines several basic tenets that he and his collegues implemented when they approached a special communicative teaching situation. Based on my experience, his principles, as they appear below, seem to be fairly representative of a communicative teacher's perspective towards his students and classroom.

Negative:

1. Use no materials, published or unpublished, actually conceived or designed as materials for language teaching. [Some teachers would not agree with eliminating <u>all</u> materials, including me.]
2. Avoid linquistic correction entirely (from the teacher of the course).
3. Refuse to supply words, or in any other way to simply "give" language items to the learners.
4. Never introduce linquistic content for its own sake, or make any pre-selection of materials on a linguistic basis.

Positive:

5. Be extremely supportive, but primarily of the learner's struggles towards independence from the teacher and towards peer interdependence.

6. Allow time for learners to work at their own pace (except where, as with some small-scale communication problems, an artificial time constraint may be intrinsic to the task...)
7. Keep the learners busy, constantly engaged in "productive" tasks. (p. 173)

11. Terrell's (1983) stages and activities are
    1. Comprehension (Preproduction)
        A. Total Physical Response (TPR)
        B. Answer with names--objects, students, pictures
    2. Early Speech Production
        A. Yes-no questions
        B. Either-or questions
        C. Single/two-word answers
        D. Open-ended sentences
        E. Open dialogues
        F. Interviews
    3. Speech Emerges
        A. Games and recreational activities
        B. Content activities
        C. Humanistic-affective activities
        D. Informational-affective activities (p. 282)
12. Notice Terrell's stages and activities in Note 11 above. Comprehensible input dominates the first two stages with interdependence only becoming more important in the final stage. However, in pragmaticism, interdependence and social interfacing are promoted from the beginning of language instruction.

13. This Halloween activity, using artistic dictation, is described in my paper (Yeats, 1984c) Bringing the Dead to Life: Injecting Communication into the Second Language Classroom. That paper, which contains several student drawings, was developed for a poster display designed to serve as an inservice for the English-literature faculty in my department who were familiar with audio-lingualism but could not understand the idea of a communication-based curriculum.
14. I highly recommend the text I used in that course--Business Concepts for English Practice by Dowling and McDougal (1982). It follows an excellent integrated format and offers a variety of good exercises, including sections in each chapter entitled "Follow-up Activities" that frequently have suggestions for pragmatically-oriented activities. Another excellent book, more at an intermediate level, that can readily be used in a pragmatic context is Face to Face: The Cross-Cultural Workbook by Zanger (1985).
15. In the actual debate, only one person did not use all of his time; the other participants met or needed to exceed their allotments. Furthermore, each of the participants had been required to make several oral presentations in front of the class, so, during the debate, none of the speakers "froze" from stage fright even though there were over forty spectators. As a matter of fact, many of the students brought cameras, kept their programs, and asked for their name placards as souveniers.
16. This kind of evaluation, using scoring profile sheets containing point options, was not unfamiliar to the students as I had used profiles extensively throughout the course. Consequently, they

knew how such profiles worked and did not feel threatened by their use or application in this debate.

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Appendix A

1. What is your name? _____

2. Have you ever tasted:

   Pepsi (YES NO) New Coke (YES NO) Coke Classic (YES NO)

3. Which soda do you prefer? Pepsi New Coke Coke Classic

4. Can you taste a difference between Pepsi, New Coke, and Coke Classic?

   YES NO

5. In your opinion, which soda is more popular?

   Pepsi New Coke Coke Classic

6. If one of the sodas that is <u>not</u> your preference is on sale, would you buy the soda-on-sale or your preference?

   Soda-on-Sale Preference

7. How many sodas do you drink a day? _____ (_____/week)

INTERVIEWER DIRECTIONS: Ask the interviewee the questions above. <u>Circle</u> the interviewee's answer. After completing the interview, give this questionnaire to one of the taste-test administrators.

TASTE-TEST ADMINISTRATOR DIRECTIONS: Ask the interviewee what his/her name is in order to make sure this questionnaire belongs to the person taking the test. Ask the interviewee to taste the three sodas and identify which one is Pepsi--New Coke--Coke Classic. Write his/her answers below and on the "thank you" card; then, give him/her the thank you card.

Taste Selections:

Soda A = _____

Soda B = _____

Soda C = _____

NOTE: Pepsi = "Pep" New Coke = "NC" Coke Classic = "CC"

Appendix B

RETIREMENT QUESTIONNAIRE
(30 to 50 years-old)

How old are you? _____ Male Female

Directions: Read each of the questions and answer choices. After the examinee chooses an answer, circle that answer. (Do not show this questionnaire to the examinee; you must use oral communication only.)

1. Have you begun to prepare for retirement?
   A. YES
   B. NO

2. When considering your retirement, do you plan to rely financially on...

A.	Social Security	YES	NO
B.	Investments/IRAs	YES	NO
C.	Savings	YES	NO
D.	Employer Pension	YES	NO
E.	Family Support	YES	NO
F.	Part-time Income	YES	NO

3. At what age did you finally leave your parents' home?
   _____ years-old

4. Do you plan to live in this city when you retire?
   A. YES
   B. NO

5. How would you feel about your parents living with you through their retirement years?
   A. Positively
   B. Negatively
   C. Neutrally

6. If your parents asked to live with you but you did not want them to, how would you handle the situation?
   A. By permitting them to live with you anyway
   B. By refusing to let them live with you
   C. By finding another family member to care for them
   D. By financing alternate living accommodations for them
   E. By placing them in a nursing facility

7. If you were living with your children after retiring but they did not have time to care for you, would you choose to enter a nursing facility?
   A. YES
   B. NO

8. How do you feel about becoming elderly?
   A. Afraid
   B. Indifferent
   C. Positive

9. What best describes the personality you believe you will have as an elderly person?
   A. Adventuresome
   B. Productive
   C. Boring
   D. Cautious

RETIREMENT QUESTIONNAIRE
(65 years-old and over)

How old are you? _____ Male Female

Directions: Read each of the questions and answer choices. After the examinee chooses an answer, circle that answer. (Do not show this questionnaire to the examinee; you must use oral communication only.)

1. Do you live alone?
   A. YES
   B. NO

2. Currently, do you live...
   A. Independently
   B. With your family
   C. In a nursing facility

3. If you do not live with your children, is it because...
   A. You do not have children
   B. You do not want to impose on your children
   C. Your children are unable to take care of you
   D. You do not want to live with them

4. How often do you have contact with your children?
   A. Daily
   B. Weekly
   C. Monthly
   D. Yearly
   E. Never

5. Concerning employment, do you...
   A. Work part-time for income
   B. Work full-time for income
   C. Volunteer your services
   D. Not work

6. In your retirement years, will you rely or are you relying on...

(1) Social Security	YES	NO
(2) Investments/IRAs	YES	NO
(3) Savings	YES	NO
(4) Employer Pension	YES	NO
(5) Family Support	YES	NO
(6) Part-time Income	YES	NO

7. In earlier years when you were thinking about retirement, did you think you would live...
   A. Independently
   B. In a senior-citizens facility
   C. In a nursing facility
   D. With your children or family

8. How would you rate your level of satisfaction with your life not that you are 65 or over?
   A. Very satisfied
   B. Satisfied
   C. Marginally satisfied
   D. Unsatisfied

9. During retirement years, how would you rate the importance of friends?
   A. Essential
   B. Desireable
   C. Unimportant

10. Are you content about being your age?
    A. YES
    B. NO

Appendix C

Hints for Debate Evaluators

The evaluation forms attached have been designed in such a way as to facilitate your evaluation and to provide the examinees with some concrete information to help them prepare their presentations. As a result, you should be assured that the students know what criteria are to be used in determining their grades, and you should expect them to perform in each of the areas listed on the forms.

In order to help you know how "harshly" to grade them, I will tell you:

(1) We have not discussed debate strategies or conventions nor should you expect to see standard debate conventions followed.

(2) I provided the students with a topic, roles, and other very general information, so what you see and hear is what they have researched and believe to be relevant to this debate.

(3) On the day of the debate, the students will have had one full week of preparation time with only two hours of class time allotted for preparations.

(4) The students from the two different classes know nothing about each other's roles or strategies other than who and what they assume will appear and happen based on their research.

(5) At no time have these students rehearsed in my presence or obtained any strategic guidance from me.

(6) I don't even know what they'll do.

In order to help you understand the categories on each of the evaluation forms, I have prepared the following questions and or statements which I hope will clarify what each one means.

Individual Presentation Evaluations

coverage of area: According to the role (which will be filled in on each sheet for each student) stated and from what you assume to be that role's relm of responsibility, did the presenter adequately discuss that body of information that you assume to fall within his relm of responsibility? If so, how well did he cover it? Thoroughly? Or scarcely at all.

specific details: Within the presenter's realm of responsibility, did he provide appropriate details, such as dollar amounts, numbers, dates, names, etc.

organization: Is there some logic to the way the presenter is introducing his body of information, or does it seem to be merely a hodge-podge?

relevance: Is the information being presented relevant to this debate, or is it "filler?"

research: In your estimation, does it appear that the student has spent time gathering information to enhance his presentation, or does he appear to have "slapped something together?"

delivery: How well does the student present himself while speaking? How well does he seem to relate to an audience? How comfortable does he appear to be with his debate material?

relation of information: Does the presenter's information seem to fit in with the overall position of the team, or does he and his information seem to be "off in the blue?"

response to opposing team: With regard to the presenter's area of responsibility, does he either rebut or anticipate the position of the other team?

comprehensibility: How easy or difficult is it to understand the presenter?

grammar: How accurate and/or appropriate is the presenter's grammar? Does it interfer with your understanding him? If so, to what degree?

suprasegmentation: How appropriate are the vocalizations and the vocal characteristics produced by the presenter? Does he use pauses? Does he use various pitches as appropriate? Does he use appropri-rhythm and/or stress? Is he monotone?

nonverbal behavior: How does the presenter behave nonverbally? Is he "frozen" in one position? Does he use gestures to accompany his arguments? Does his posture and/or eye gaze seem appropriate?

overall effect: Holistically speaking, what kind of impact does the presenter have on you, as a listener? Are you interested, impressed, or bored?

Team Evaluations

clearly defined position: Does it appear that there are some unifying themes and/or an organized strategy emerging by which the team hopes to strengthen its position and weaken the other team's position? Or does it seem that each individual is charting his own course?

position clarification: After the team's position has been introduced, does it seem that the individual presentations are seeking to build up that position by offering concrete, pursuasive information? And, if the team's position is weakened in some way, do the presenter's attempt to redefine or realign themselves so as to be more pursuasive than the damaging influence?

weakening the opposition's position: Do the presenters attempt to point out the weaknesses in the other team's position? Do they capitalize on opportunities to weaken the other team's position when those opportunities seem to emerge unexpectedly? Or do they seem to ignore the fact that they are engaged in a debate situation and just "give speeches?"

time management: How well has the team distributed the time they were given? Does the order of presenters they selected seem to enhance the development of their position? How well do the individual presenters use the time they have?

specific details: As a whole, does the team use concrete details to stregthen its position and to weaken the other team's position?

use of visual aids: Does the team use visual aids? If so, of what quality are they? Do they serve to enhance the team's position? Or are they of negligible value or sloppily prepared?

overall effect: Holistically, what is the overall impact of the team's collective appearance and argumentation?

comments: If you would like to comment on the team's performance or that of an individual, please do so as the team members would be interested to hear your impressions.